

QUT Digital Repository:
<http://eprints.qut.edu.au/>



This is the author's version published as:

Rattanapun, Wigunda, Amornsak, Weerawan, & Clarke, Anthony R. (2010) *Is a mango just a mango? Testing within-fruit oviposition site choice and larval performance of a highly polyphagous fruit fly*. *Arthropod-Plant Interactions*, 4(1), pp. 35-44.

Copyright 2010 Springer

1 **Is a mango just a mango? Testing within-fruit oviposition site choice and larval**
2 **performance of a highly polyphagous fruit fly**

3

4 Wigunda Rattanapun^{1*}, Weerawan Amornsak¹ & Anthony R. Clarke²

5 ¹Department of Entomology, Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand, 10900

6 ²School of Natural Resource Sciences and CRC for National Plant Biosecurity, Queensland

7 University of Technology, GPO Box 2434, Brisbane, Qld 4001, Australia

8 *Correspondence: Wigunda Rattanapun, Department of Entomology, Kasetsart University,

9 Bangkok, Thailand, 10900. E-mail: g4781021@ku.ac.th

10

11 **Key words:** polyphagy, host plant, oviposition, larvae, total soluble solids, *Bactrocera*
12 *dorsalis*, Tephritidae

13

14 **Abstract**

15 For fruit flies, fully ripe fruit is preferred for adult oviposition and is superior for offspring
16 performance over unripe or ripening fruit. Because not all parts of a single fruit ripen
17 simultaneously, the opportunity exists for adult fruit flies to selectively choose riper parts of a
18 fruit for oviposition and such selection, if it occurs, could positively influence offspring
19 performance. Such fine scale host variation is rarely considered in fruit fly ecology, however,
20 especially for polyphagous species which are, by definition, considered to be generalist host
21 users. Here we study the adult oviposition preference/larval performance relationship of the
22 Oriental fruit fly, *Bactrocera dorsalis* (Hendel) (Diptera: Tephritidae), a highly polyphagous
23 pest species, at the “within-fruit” level to see if such a host use pattern occurs. We recorded
24 the number of oviposition attempts that female flies made into three fruit portions (top,
25 middle and bottom), and larval behavior and development within different fruit portions for
26 ripening (color change) and fully-ripe mango, *Mangifera indica* L. (Anacardiaceae). Results
27 indicate that female *B. dorsalis* do not oviposit uniformly across a mango fruit, but lay most
28 often in the top (i.e., stalk end) of fruit and least in the bottom portion, regardless of ripening
29 stage. There was no evidence of larval feeding site preference or performance (development
30 time, pupal weight, percent pupation) being influenced by fruit portion, within or across the
31 fruit ripening stages. There was, however, a very significant effect on adult emergence rate
32 from pupae, with adult emergence rate from pupae from the bottom of ripening mango being
33 approximately only 50% of the adult emergence rate from the top of ripening fruit, or from
34 both the top and bottom of fully-ripe fruit. Differences in mechanical (firmness) and chemical
35 (total soluble solids, titratable acidity, total non-structural carbohydrates) traits between
36 different fruit portions were correlated with adult fruit utilisation. Our results support a
37 positive adult preference/offspring performance relationship at within-fruit level for *B.*
38 *dorsalis*. The fine level of host discrimination exhibited by *B. dorsalis* is at odds with the

39 general perception that, as a polyphagous herbivore, the fly should show very little
40 discrimination in its host use behavior.

41

42 **Introduction**

43 For many herbivorous insects, selection of oviposition site depends on the quality of the host
44 plant for offspring development (Wilson 1988; DiTommaso and Losey 2003; Van Nouhuys
45 et al. 2003). As a specialist group of insect herbivores, true fruit flies (Diptera: Tephritidae)
46 are also known to make decisions about which fruit to oviposit into based on the suitability of
47 the fruit for their offsprings' performance (Fitt 1981; Joachim-Bravo et al. 2001; Fontellas-
48 Brandalha and Zucoloto 2004). For fruit flies, the quality and amount of nutrients that are
49 available to larvae influence larval size, development time, pupal weight, probability of adult
50 eclosion and reproductive capacity of adult flies (Carey 1984; Krainacker et al. 1987;
51 Bruzzone et al. 1990; Economopoulos et al. 1990; Chang et al. 2000; Kaspi et al. 2002;
52 Woods et al. 2005).

53

54 With apparently strong selective pressures to ensure female preference matches offspring
55 performance, theory predicts evolution will lead to increasingly specialized host use (Bernays
56 and Chapman 1994) and this seems to be the pattern in tephritid flies, where narrow hosts
57 ranges are the norm (Fletcher 1989). In fruit flies, however, such theory is not necessarily
58 matched by experimental results where, contrary to the papers cited above, evidence for
59 strong adult preference/offspring performance relationships is weak (Díaz-Fleischer, et al.
60 2001). Also contrary to standard host-range theory, polyphagy appears to be a derived, rather
61 than ancestral trait in fruit flies (Díaz-Fleischer, et al. 2001; Graham et al. 2006). Walter
62 (2003) has argued that herbivory theory which focuses on classifying organisms using
63 generic terms such as 'specialist' or "generalist", monophagous or polyphagous, can mislead
64 research by moving the focus of investigation away from the functional interactions which
65 occur between a herbivore and its host plant. Given the discrepancy between theoretical
66 predictions and experimental observation in fruit flies, Walter's argument that we focus

67 greater attention on the individual interactions between herbivores and their host plants is
68 clearly pertinent in this system.

69

70 One example of ignoring individual interactions, common across nearly all fruit fly host use
71 studies, is the treating of individual fruit as homogenous resources. Specifically, while there
72 has been quite extensive work in fruit flies concerning adult preference/offspring
73 performance relationships at the “between-fruit” level (i.e., between different fruit species or
74 different varieties of the one species) (Fitt 1981; Peck and McQuate 2004; Thomas 2004;
75 Balagawi et al. 2005; Navrozidis and Tzanakakis 2005), significantly less has been done at
76 the “within-fruit” level. Fruit fly maggots do not move between fruit during their larval stages
77 and so they need to make up a complete diet from within the host fruit that eggs are placed. In
78 arena situations, larvae of Mediterranean fruit fly, *Ceratitis capitata* (Weidemann),
79 selectively moved to nutritionally superior diets, suggesting that larvae have the capacity to
80 move within fruit to maximize their nutritional intakes (Zucoloto 1987; Zucoloto 1991;
81 Fernandez-Da-Silva and Zucoloto 1993). Similarly, larvae derived from wild caught *C.*
82 *capitata* showed a strong preference for papaya compared to an artificial diet in an arena
83 (Joachim-Bravo and Zucoloto 1998), again reinforcing the point that, at least for that species,
84 larvae have to capacity to detect and respond to host material of different quality.

85

86 Why might pulp within a single piece of fruit be of nutritionally different quality?
87 Firstly, larvae themselves may change host quality, both positively and detrimentally through
88 direct feeding, production of metabolic heat and transfer of bacteria, and there is evidence
89 this occurs (Zucoloto 1987; Zucoloto 1991; Fernandez-Da-Silva and Zucoloto 1993;
90 Joachim-Bravo and Zucoloto 1998; Diaz-Fleischer and Aluja 2003). Another mechanism, and
91 the one pursued in this paper, relates to host ripening. Fruit flies are known to preferentially

92 oviposit into ripe over unripe fruit (Seo et al. 1982; Messina and Jones 1990; Jang and Light
93 1991; Messina et al. 1991; Vargas et al. 1995), while larvae perform better in ripe fruit
94 (Joachim-Bravo et al. 2001; Fontellas-Brandalha and Zucoloto 2004). Better performance in
95 ripe fruit may be due to nutritional status (e.g., higher sugar and lower starch levels) (Bidwell
96 1979; Medlicott and Thompson 1985), but may also be due to changes in allelochemicals. In
97 the Anacardiaceae (which includes mangoes, the focus of this paper), phenolics, resins,
98 alkaloids, saponin and volatile oils play a role in defending plants against phytophagous
99 insects (Keil et al. 1946; Joel 1978; Herrera 1982). Many of these secondary chemicals tend
100 to decrease in concentration as fruit ripens (Macheix et al. 1990). For fruit which ripens
101 gradually (i.e. most climacteric fruit; Bidwell 1979), it is highly likely that some portions of a
102 fruit will be riper, and hence may be nutritionally superior or contain lower levels of
103 allelochemicals, than other portions. In such cases fruit fly larvae may well move themselves
104 to superior sites, or adults may preferentially oviposit into them.

105

106 While studying the influence of mango, *Mangifera indica* L. (Anacardiaceae),
107 ripening on oviposition preference and larval performance for the Oriental fruit fly,
108 *Bactrocera dorsalis* (Hendel), at the “between-fruit” level (Rattanapun et al. 2009), we noted
109 that adult oviposition site selection at the within-fruit level did not appear random. Rather,
110 certain portions of fruit, especially the top, appeared preferred. Whether this was related to
111 differences in fruit quality, with the potential to impact on larval performance, was not clear.
112 To take these observations further we carried out structured laboratory observations to
113 determine: *B. dorsalis* oviposition site preference between the top, middle and bottom
114 portions of mango; larval performance in the top or bottom half of mango; and larval feeding
115 site preference (as judged by larval movement away from different egg insertion points). We
116 concurrently measured fruit parameters, which may influence larval behavior and survival, at

117 the same within-fruit scale. All work was carried out on two ripening stages [color change (=

118 mature but still ripening) and fully-ripe] of a commercially produced Thai mango, mango

119 variety Namdorkmai. To be consistent with our usage in Rattanapun et al. (2009), in this

120 paper we will refer to the two ripening stages as “ripe” and “fully-ripe”. Our specific aims

121 were, for *B. dorsalis*, to: (i) determine if there was a positive adult oviposition

122 preference/larval performance relationship at the “within-fruit” level; (ii) determine if larval

123 movement occurred and if so was consistent with a pattern that would be expected if larvae

124 were moving to areas of riper fruit; and (iii) better understand the evolution of polyphagy in

125 this fly.

126

127 **Materials and Methods**

128 **Location**

129 All research was carried out in the laboratory at the National Biological Control Research

130 Center, Headquarters, Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand. Average humidity,

131 temperature and light intensity within the laboratory were 61%, 25 °C and 331 Lux,

132 respectively.

133

134 **Eggs and Adult flies**

135 *Bactrocera dorsalis* were originally obtained from the Department of Agriculture, Bang

136 Khen, Bangkok. The number of generations for which they had been in culture was

137 unknown, and our culture was started with relatively few flies. Adult flies were fed with

138 water and sugar: yeast hydrolysate (3: 1) and larvae were reared on *Musa x paradisiaca*, ABB

139 Group (Musaceae), Namwa variety. The culture was nine generations old when used in trials.

140 To confirm that culturing had not altered the behavior of flies (at least with respect to our

141 questions), a subset of the preference/performance trials was repeated using F1 flies from the

142 field after laboratory studies had been completed. These trials showed no obvious difference
143 to the patterns of host use shown by cultured flies. Results of the validation trial are available
144 on request from the contact author. Voucher specimens of flies used in the trials are deposited
145 with the National Biological Control Research Center, Headquarters and Department of
146 Entomology, Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand.

147

148 **Fruit host**

149 Mango variety Namdorkmai of two ripening stages was used to determine the oviposition
150 preference of *B. dorsalis* female flies and preference and performance of larvae for different
151 fruit portions. All fruits were bought from local markets at ripe (green-yellow; marketable
152 after shipment) and fully-ripe (yellow; marketable for local use at the production site) stages.
153 Based on discussion with the fruit sellers (who were also the growers), all fruit purchased had
154 been protected from fly during production by use of fruit bagging, rather than insecticides. To
155 check for possible field infestation of the fruit, in every experiment five mangoes were
156 randomly selected and incubated in separate plastic containers to check for pupal emergence.
157 In total 60 fruits were screened and no pupae were recovered from such controls. In other
158 trials (Rattanapun et al. 2009) we also studied preference and performance of *B. dorsalis* on
159 mango at the mature green stage ripening stage, but oviposition into such fruit was negligible
160 (in both choice and no choice trials) and so we did not use this age class of fruit in the current
161 study.

162

163 **Fruit properties**

164 All fruits used for fruit property measurements were randomly selected from fruits purchased
165 for behavioral tests, before any fruits had been assigned to experiments. Fifteen fruits from
166 both mango ripening stages were used for measurements of total soluble solids (TSS) (=

167 Brix), measured using a handheld Brix refractometer (OPTIK B-32; ATAGO, Saitama,
168 Japan). Brix degree is used to measure the sugar, organic acid and other components in the
169 juice of fruit (Linskens and Jackson 1995). Firmness was measured using a penetrometer
170 (FT-327, Effegi, Alfonsine, Italy) with 1 mm diameter probe (as used by Balagawi et al. 2005
171 and Diaz-Fleischer and Aluja 2003), mounted on a Black & Decker[®] test stand (Black &
172 Decker, Berkshire, United Kingdom) on each of 13 ripe and fully-ripe mangoes. Thirteen
173 penetrometer readings were taken at three different locations on each fruit portion and
174 averaged for the position. The diameter of the oviposition hole made by female *B. dorsalis* is
175 0.2 ± 0.01 mm (n = 30, authors' unpublished data). Six ripe and fully-ripe mangoes were also
176 tested for percentage titratable acidity (TA) (following the approach of Hulme 1971) and total
177 non-structural carbohydrates (TNC) [following the acid extraction of Smith et al. (1964) and
178 Nelson's reducing sugar procedure of Hodge and Hofreiter (1962)].

179

180 **Oviposition site preference, no-choice trial**

181 To evaluate oviposition site preference of *B. dorsalis* females within mangoes of different
182 ripening stage, fruit of the two ripening stages were placed individually into 30 × 30 × 30 cm
183 Perspex observation cages. The place of attachment between the fruit and the mango stem
184 was covered with tape, as preliminary observations showed that female flies preferred this
185 site for oviposition when the site was exposed, despite it not being available to the flies when
186 they attack fruit on the tree. An individual 21- to 22-day-old, mated female fly was released
187 into the observation cage with one mango per replicate. The mango was placed on the center
188 of the cage floor. Twenty single-fly replicates were conducted for each ripening stage and we
189 recorded the number of attempted ovipositions in each of three fruit portions; the top (closest
190 to stem), middle and bottom. While flies actively engaged in oviposition behavior on fruit,
191 almost no successful penetration occurred (an issue discussed by Rattanapun et al. 2009),

192 thus all results refer to oviposition attempts. Observations were made continuously from 7:
193 00-17: 00 hours. At the end of the day, flies were dissected to confirm their gravid status: in
194 all cases there were mature eggs in the ovaries.

195

196 **Oviposition site preference, choice trial**

197 A choice experiment was conducted to determine the behavior of individual female *B.*
198 *dorsalis* when the two ripening stages were offered simultaneously in a 50 × 50 × 50 cm
199 laboratory cage. Ripe and fully-ripe mangoes were placed at each corner of the laboratory
200 cage and the female fly was released at the equal distance between two mangoes. With the
201 exception of simultaneous offering of fruit, all other experimental conditions were as for the
202 no-choice trial.

203

204 **Preference of *B. dorsalis* larvae for different fruit portions**

205 *Bactrocera dorsalis* eggs were collected using an inverted perforated plastic cup swabbed
206 with the flesh of *M. x paradisiaca*. Eggs were placed in water and those which sunk were
207 collected for use: floating eggs are inviable (Balagawi et al. 2005). Using a sterile blade a
208 narrow slit was made in the mango skin near either the top or bottom of the fruit and 20 eggs
209 were inserted using a brush. The mangoes were held for five days and on the fifth day fruit
210 was divided into four portions and larvae in each portion counted. Division of fruit for larval
211 counts was done as follows. Fruit was first halved (by length) and then the fruit half where
212 eggs were inserted was further equally divided into three (again by length). Numbering of
213 portions from one to four began from the portion where eggs were inserted (i.e., when eggs
214 were inserted at the top of fruit then the top-most portion was one and bottom portion four,
215 when eggs were inserted at the bottom of the fruit so the bottom-most portion was one and
216 the top portion four). Division of fruit in this way gave greater sensitivity in assessing larval

217 movement from the point of egg insertion. Ten replicates for each of eggs inserted at the top
218 and bottom of both ripe and fully-ripe mango were undertaken.

219

220 **The performance of *B. dorsalis* larvae on different fruit portions**

221 Using the same technique as described above, 20 *B. dorsalis* eggs were inoculated into either
222 the top or bottom of ripe or fully ripe fruit (10 replicates of each). Mangoes were then
223 individually incubated over sand and emergent pupae counted, weighed and left in plastic
224 containers for adult eclosion, when the number of emergent adults was counted and wing
225 length measured (from wing base to wing tip). Wing size is a commonly used measure of
226 adult size in fruit flies (Yuval et al. 1998; Kaspi et al. 2000; Kaspi and Parrella 2003).

227

228 **Statistical analyses**

229 Results for no-choice and choice oviposition trials were analysed using two-way ANOVA to
230 test for effect of ripening stage and fruit portion. For larval feeding site preference, while the
231 data were amenable to analysis using a single three-way ANOVA (i.e., independent variables
232 ripening class, egg placement, fruit portion), we did not use this analysis because of the
233 inherent difficulties in interpreting third-order interactions. Rather, we investigated
234 interaction effects using four, two-way ANOVAs. We ran two, two-way ANOVAs to test for
235 differences in larval location depending on where eggs were initially placed within a ripening
236 class [i.e., independent variables, egg placement (top/bottom) and fruit portion (1-4);
237 dependent variable, number of larvae; separate two-way ANOVA for each ripening class]
238 and then a further two, two-way ANOVAs to test for differences in larval location when eggs
239 were placed in the same location (either top or bottom) across ripening classes [i.e.,
240 independent variables, ripening stage (ripe/fully-ripe) and fruit portion (1-4); dependent
241 variable, number of larvae; separate two-way ANOVA for eggs placed at top or bottom of

242 fruit]. Because no significant interactions were found in these analyses (see Results), we
243 present the results graphically as simple mean larval abundance in the four fruit portions for
244 each of the four treatments (i.e., ripe or fully ripe fruit, eggs inserted in top or bottom of
245 fruit). For all ANOVAs, *post-hoc*, pairwise comparisons of means was made using Tukey's-
246 test. Independent-samples t-test was used to analyze all parameters of larval performance.
247 Paired-samples t-test was used to determine the different of percentage of TA and TNC
248 content between top and bottom portions. Response variables analyzed were the number of
249 attempted ovipositions, the number of pupae, the weight of pupae, percent adult emergence,
250 the duration of the egg to adult period, wing length and the physical characteristics of mango
251 fruit (i.e., firmness, TSS, TA and TNC). Data were transformed using $\log(n+1)$, if required,
252 to meet the assumptions of statistical analysis and then back-transformed for presentation in
253 graphs and tables.

254

255 **Results**

256 **Fruit properties**

257 TSS did not differ significantly between the top, middle or bottom of ripe (ANOVA: $F_{2,42} =$
258 0.564 , $P = 0.573$) and fully-ripe mangoes (ANOVA: $F_{2,42} = 1.478$, $P = 0.240$). There were
259 significant differences in the firmness among the three fruit portions of ripe mango (the top
260 was softest, ANOVA: $F_{2,36} = 30.886$, $P < 0.0001$), while the firmness did not differ
261 significantly among three fruit portions of fully-ripe mango (ANOVA: $F_{2,36} = 0.026$, $P =$
262 0.975). The TA percentage did not differ significantly among top and bottom portions of ripe
263 mango (Paired-samples t-test: $t = 2.254$, d.f. = 5, $P = 0.074$), however, there was a significant
264 difference in the TNC content among top and bottom portions of ripe mango (the top had
265 higher TNC, Paired-samples t-test: $t = -5.966$, d.f. = 5, $P = 0.002$). For fully-ripe mango, the
266 percentage of TA and TNC contents of both portions did not differ significantly (Paired-

267 samples t-test: $t = 1.222$, d.f. = 5, $P = 0.276$; $t = 0.090$, d.f. = 5, $P = 0.931$, respectively)
268 (Table 1).

269

270 **Oviposition site preference, no-choice trial**

271 Two-way ANOVA did not detect a significant effect of mango ripening stage on oviposition
272 site preference (ANOVA: $F_{1,114} = 0.176$, $P = 0.676$), nor was there a significant interaction
273 between mango ripening stage and fruit portion on oviposition site preference (ANOVA:
274 $F_{2,114} = 0.859$, $P = 0.426$). There was, however, a significant effect of fruit portion on
275 oviposition site preference. Female flies made significantly more oviposition attempts into
276 the top third of the fruit than the middle third, which was again significantly greater than the
277 bottom third (ANOVA: $F_{2,114} = 27.349$, $P < 0.0001$) (Figure 1).

278

279 **Oviposition site preference, choice trial**

280 Results from the choice trial were identical to the no-choice trial. There was no significant
281 effect of mango ripening stage (ANOVA: $F_{1,114} = 0.728$, $P = 0.395$), nor was there a
282 significant interaction between mango ripening stage and fruit portion on oviposition site
283 preference (ANOVA: $F_{2,114} = 0.751$, $P = 0.474$). There was again, however, a significant
284 location affect. Female flies again made significantly more oviposition attempts into the top
285 third of the fruit than the middle third, which was again significantly greater than the bottom
286 third (ANOVA: $F_{2,114} = 34.135$, $P < 0.0001$) (Figure 1).

287

288 **Preference of *B. dorsalis* larvae for different fruit portions**

289 Two-way ANOVA detected no significant interaction between initial egg insertion
290 point and infestation level of different fruit portions for ripe (ANOVA: $F_{3,72} = 0.772$, $P =$
291 0.513) or full-ripe mangoes (ANOVA: $F_{2,73} = 1.519$, $P = 0.226$). Nor, when comparing across

292 fruit ripening classes, was there a significant interaction between infestation level of different
293 fruit portions and fruit ripening class when eggs were initially inserted at the top of the fruit
294 (ANOVA: $F_{3,72} = 1.920$, $P = 0.134$), or at the bottom of the fruit (ANOVA: $F_{3,72} = 1.174$, $P =$
295 0.326).

296

297 When eggs were inserted into the top of ripe mangoes, the number of larvae in fruit
298 portion 1 (i.e., the top-most portion) was significantly higher than the third and fourth
299 portions, while the larval number in fruit portion 2 was intermediate between the first and the
300 third portions. The larval number in fruit portion 4 was significantly lower than for all other
301 segments (ANOVA: $F_{3,36} = 15.574$, $P < 0.0001$, Figure 2A). For ripe mangoes where eggs
302 were inserted into the bottom of fruit, the larval number in the first (i.e., bottom most) and
303 second portions were higher significantly than the fourth portion, while the number of larvae
304 of the third portion was intermediate between the two (ANOVA: $F_{3,36} = 6.441$, $P = 0.001$,
305 Figure 2B).

306

307 For fully-ripe mangoes with eggs inserted into the top of fruit, the number of larvae
308 did not differ significantly between the first, second and third fruit portions, but each was
309 significantly greater than the number in fourth portion (ANOVA: $F_{3,36} = 9.036$, $P < 0.0001$,
310 Figure 2C). For fully-ripe mangoes where eggs were inserted into the bottom of fruit, the
311 larval number in the first portion was significantly greater than in the fourth portion, while
312 the number of larvae in the second and third portions were intermediate between the two
313 (ANOVA: $F_{3,36} = 3.075$, $P = 0.040$, Figure 2D).

314

315 **The performance of *B. dorsalis* larvae on different fruit portions**

316 Checking of fruit after larvae had pupated indicated that there was no evidence (by way of
317 feeding sites or tunneling) of larvae having left the fruit half where eggs were initially
318 deposited. We therefore had confidence to analyze the data as larval performance in the top
319 half versus the bottom half of fruit.

320

321 For ripe mango, there were no statistical differences between the top and bottom
322 halves of fruit in the average duration of the larval period (Independent-samples t-test: $t =$
323 0.550 , d.f. = 158.500 , $P = 0.583$), percentage pupal recovery (Independent-samples t-test: $t =$
324 1.832 , d.f. = 10.241 , $P = 0.096$), pupal weight (Independent-samples t-test: $t = 0.816$, d.f. =
325 12.779 , $P = 0.429$), pupal period (Independent-samples t-test: $t = 1.082$, d.f. = 135 , $P =$
326 0.281), male wing length (Independent-samples t-test: $t = -0.259$, d.f. = 61 , $P = 0.796$) and
327 female wing length (Independent-samples t-test: $t = -0.799$, d.f. = 42.343 , $P = 0.429$), but the
328 percentage of adult emergence differed significantly (Independent-samples t-test: $t = 2.830$,
329 d.f. = 9.189 , $P = 0.019$) (Table 2).

330

331 For fully-ripe mango, there were no statistical differences between the top and bottom
332 halves of fruit in all parameters of larval performance measurement [average duration of the
333 larval period (Independent-samples t-test: $t = 1.110$, d.f. = 189.409 , $P = 0.268$), percentage of
334 pupal recovery (Independent-samples t-test: $t = -0.303$, d.f. = 18 , $P = 0.766$), pupal weight
335 (Independent-samples t-test: $t = -0.107$, d.f. = 18 , $P = 0.916$), pupal period (Independent-
336 samples t-test: $t = 0.327$, d.f. = 137 , $P = 0.744$), percentage of adult emergence (Independent-
337 samples t-test: $t = 0.751$, d.f. = 18 , $P = 0.462$), male wing length (Independent-samples t-test:
338 $t = -1.160$, d.f. = 54 , $P = 0.251$) and female wing length (Independent-samples t-test: $t =$
339 1.987 , d.f. = 81 , $P = 0.050$)] (Table 2).

340

341 **Discussion**

342 **Oviposition site preference**

343 Results indicated that female *B. dorsalis*' preferred oviposition site was the top of ripe and
344 fully-ripe mangoes (Figure 1). The oviposition site preference of female flies for the top
345 portion of mango may be partially related with the physiological changes of mango ripening.
346 The top portion of mango fruit ripens earlier than the middle and the bottom, and thus has a
347 softer pericarp than the other portions (at least for ripening fruit) (Table 1). Firmness is
348 considered to be a limiting factor for oviposition of female fruit flies (Seo et al. 1982;
349 Messina and Jones 1990; Balagawi et al. 2005) and is possibly influencing adult preference in
350 the *B. dorsalis* / mango system. We do note, however, that in this study we report only the
351 fruit characteristic of firmness and TSS as possibly factors influencing oviposition site
352 selection. In the field other factors such as fruit volatiles (Jang and Light 1991), wounds or
353 cracks in the fruits (Papaj et al. 1989), oviposition holes of conspecifics (Papaj and Alonso-
354 Pimentel 1997), variation in available water, farming practices and plant diseases (Greany et
355 al. 1985; Liquido et al. 1995; Aluja et al. 2004) may all influence female oviposition
356 preference.

357

358 **The preference and performance of *B. dorsalis* larvae on different fruit portions**

359 For nearly all data, there was no evidence of larval preference or performance being
360 influenced by different fruit portion, within or across fruit ripening stages. Two-way ANOVA
361 failed to detect any interaction between larval position and either egg insertion point or fruit
362 ripening stage, while visual presentation of results (Figure 2) show a generally common
363 pattern of larvae being in highest density at or near the egg insertion point, becoming less
364 common at greater distances away from that point: normal point dispersal would account for
365 this dispersion pattern. Nearly all measures of larval performance were not significantly

366 different between larvae developing in the top or bottom of ripe and fully-ripe mangoes,
367 again reinforcing the lack of obvious within-fruit effects.

368

369 One very dramatic difference did occur, however, for larvae developing in ripening
370 fruit. Adult emergence from pupae derived from larvae which developed in the bottom half of
371 ripe fruit was only half of that for corresponding pupae from the top of ripe fruit, or for pupae
372 developed from the top or bottom of fully-ripe fruit. If host quality influenced this result then
373 it did not show up in other parameters of larval quality, but would be consistent with other
374 research that has demonstrated that the quality of nutrients that larvae have fed on influence
375 emergence of the adult fruit fly (Economopoulos et al. 1990; Fernandes-da-Silva and
376 Zucoloto 1993; Chang et al. 2000). Significantly lower TNC levels and higher acidity levels
377 in the bottom half of ripe mango (Table 1) may be causal, or at least correlated, with this
378 reduced adult emergence rate.

379

380 The original aims of the paper were to: (i) determine if there was a positive adult
381 oviposition preference/larval performance relationship at the “within-fruit” level; and (ii)
382 determine if larval movement occurred and if so was consistent with a pattern that would be
383 expected if larvae were moving to areas of riper fruit. The second aim appears to have been
384 fully addressed. While some larval movement occurs, it is not consistent with an expectation
385 that larvae should relocate themselves to the ripest (i.e., top most) portion of the fruit.
386 Resolution of the first aim is less clear, but possibly answered in the affirmative. Adults
387 clearly prefer to oviposit in the top of fruit, but for one parameter only (from seven
388 parameters of larval performance measured) was the top of the fruit better for offspring. That
389 one parameter, adult emergence from pupae was, however, quite dramatically different with a
390 50% reduction in adult emergence from pupae derived from the lower half of fruit. When

391 only one (or few) parameters within a series show a result different to the common trend, it is
392 appropriate to be cautious about interpreting that result in case it is due to chance or unknown
393 experimental error. If, however, the result of high pupal mortality for larvae from slightly
394 under-ripe fruit is real and consistent, then it would explain the preference by the adult for the
395 top of the fruit, as there would be strong selection pressure on the adult to oviposit in sites
396 which are best for offspring development. Mortality of pupae prior to adult emergence
397 strongly suggests that some key chemical component of the fruit is either missing, or existing
398 at toxic levels, and is worthy of further investigation.

399

400 Adult oviposition preference may, however, have nothing to do with offspring
401 performance. Fruit flies are well documented as preferring hosts with softer skins and/or flesh
402 (Seo et al. 1982; Messina and Jones 1990; Messina and Jones 1991; Balagawi et al. 2005;
403 Rattanapun et al. 2009). Preference for the top of fruit as an oviposition site may thus be a
404 direct mechanical, or longer-term evolved response, to the fact that a host fruit is, or likely to
405 be, softer at the top. Further research is required to determine which of these two hypotheses
406 (i.e. a positive preference/performance relationship or mechanical suitability) is correct.

407

408 **Implications for evolution of host use in tephritids**

409 Polyphagous insects are commonly considered generalist users of a wide array of resource
410 types (Walter 2003). Such views are reinforced by published host lists (e.g. Hancock et al.
411 2000), where listing of a host plant is rarely supported by any biological data which may give
412 insights into how frequently a host is used, or if a host is more or less preferred in comparison
413 to other hosts. For *B. dorsalis*, Allwood et al. (1999) record 124 larval hosts and, as such, the
414 fly is regarded as a highly polyphagous. Despite this tag, however, *B. dorsalis* is known to
415 discriminate between hosts in the lab and field (Clarke *et al.* 2005). For example, based on

416 field surveys in Thailand, Clarke *et al.* (2001) showed that *B. dorsalis* was quite
417 discriminatory in its host use, with only a small number of the total pool of locally available
418 host plants yielding the greater majority of locally reared flies. When combined with the
419 findings of this paper, that host use varies at the within fruit level, the accumulating results
420 suggest that for even as polyphagous an insect as *B. dorsalis*, a relatively small range of host
421 plant attributes may be involved in host acceptance and/or utilisation. What these attributes
422 may be is as yet unknown, but the recent findings of up to six cryptic species of tephritine
423 feeding within the flower heads of a single daisy species (Condon *et al.* 2008) suggests an
424 extraordinary ability of tephritids to detect subtle host differences. This ability may have
425 implications for speciation in this highly diverse family, where there is increasing evidence
426 for host associated cryptic species (Abrey *et al.* 2005; Stireman *et al.* 2005; Knio *et al.*
427 2007a,b; Marsteller *et al.* 2009; Smith *et al.* 2009). We suggest that further research on host
428 use by fruit flies focus on understanding the mechanisms of host utilization, rather than
429 simply documenting the size of the host range.

430

431

432 **Acknowledgements**

433 The authors thank the National Biological Control Research Center (NBCRC), Kasetsart
434 University, Bangkok, Thailand, for allowing us to carry out the experiment in the laboratory
435 and Dr Kriengkrai Jumroenma, Entomology and Zoology Group, Plant Protection Research
436 and Development Office, Department of Agriculture, Bangkok, Thailand, for providing the
437 initial fruit fly colony. We are also grateful to Dr. Kawit Wanichkul from Department of
438 Horticulture and to staff of Postharvest Research Unit, Central Laboratory and Greenhouse
439 Complex, Kamphaengsean Campus, Kasetsart University, Nakhonpathom, Thailand, for

440 suggestions and help on fruit property analysis. This study was funded by the Graduate
441 School of Kasetsart University.

442

443 **References**

- 444 Abreu AG, Prado PI, Norrbom AL, Solferini VN (2005) Genetic and morphological
445 diagnosis and description of two cryptic species of flower head-infesting Tephritidae
446 (Diptera). *Insect System. & Evol.* 36: 361-370
447
- 448 Allwood AJ, Chinajariyawong A, Drew RAI, Hamacek EL, Hancock DL, Hengsawad C,
449 Jipanin JC, Jirasurat M, Kong Krong C, Kritsaneepaiboon S, Leong CTS,
450 Vijaysegaran S 1999. Host plant records for fruit flies (Diptera: Tephritidae) in South
451 East Asia. *Raffles Bull. Zool. Supplement No. 7*: 1-92
452
- 453 Aluja M, Díaz-Fleischer F, Arredondo J (2004) Non-host status of commercial *Persea*
454 *americana* ‘Hass’ to *Anastrepha ludens*, *Anastrepha obliqua*, *Anastrepha serpentina*,
455 *Anastrepha striata* (Diptera: Tephritidae) in Mexico. *J. Econ. Entomol.* 97: 293-309
456
- 457 Balagawi S, Vijaysegaran S, Drew RAI, Raghu S (2005) Influence of fruit traits on
458 oviposition preference and offspring performance of *Bactrocera tryoni* (Froggatt)
459 (Diptera: Tephritidae) on three tomato (*Lycopersicon lycopersicum*) cultivars. *Aust. J.*
460 *Entomol.* 44: 97-103
461
- 462 Bernays EA, Chapman RF (1994) Host-plant Selection by Phytophagous Insects. Chapman
463 & Hall, New York
464
- 465 Bidwell RGS (1979) Plant physiology. 2nd. Macmillan Publishing, New York, pp 165-174
466
- 467 Bruzzone ND, Economopoulos AP, Wang H-S (1990) Mass rearing *Ceratitidis capitata*: reuse

468 of the finisher larval diet. Entomol. Exp. Appl. 56: 103-106
469
470 Carey JR (1984) Host-specific demographic studies of the Mediterranean fruit fly *Ceratit*
471 *capitata*. Ecol. Entomol. 9: 261-270
472
473 Chang CL, Kurashima R, Albrecht C (2000) Effect of limiting concentrations of growth
474 factors in mass rearing diets for *Ceratit**s capitata* larvae (Diptera: Tephritidae). Ann.
475 Entomol. Soc. Am. 93: 898-903
476
477 Clarke AR, Allwood A, Chinajariyawong A, Drew RAI, Hengsawad C, Jirasurat M, Kong
478 Krong C, Kritsaneepaiboon S, Vijaysegaran S (2001) Seasonal abundance and host
479 use patterns of seven *Bactrocera* Macquart species (Diptera: Tephritidae) in Thailand
480 and Peninsular Malaysia. Raffles Bull. Zool. 49: 207-220
481
482 Clarke AR, Armstrong KF, Carmichael AE, Milne JR, Raghu S, Roderick GK, Yeates DK
483 2005. Invasive phytophagous pests arising through a recent tropical evolutionary
484 radiation: The *Bactrocera dorsalis* complex of fruit flies. Annu. Rev. Entomol. 50:
485 293-319
486
487 Condon M, Adams DC, Bann D, Flaherty K, Gammons J, Johnson J, Lewis ML, Marsteller
488 S, Scheffer SJ, Serna F, Swensen S. (2008) Uncovering tropical diversity: six
489 sympatric cryptic species of *Blepharoneura* (Diptera: Tephritidae) in flowers of
490 *Gurania spinulosa* (Cucurbitaceae) in eastern Ecuador. Biol. J. Linn. Soc. 93: 779–
491 797
492

493 Díaz-Fleischer F, Papaj DR, Prokopy RJ, Norrbom AL, Aluja M (2001) Evolution of fruit fly
494 oviposition behavior. In Fruit Flies (Tephritidae): Phylogeny and Evolution of
495 Behavior (eds M Aluja & AL Norrbom), pp. 8111-841. CRC Press, New York.
496

497 Díaz-Fleischer F, Aluja M (2003) Clutch size in frugivorous insects as a function of host
498 firmness: the case of the tephritid fly *Anastrepha ludens*. Ecol. Entomol. 28: 268-277
499

500 DiTommaso A, Losey JE (2003) Oviposition preference and larval performance of monarch
501 butterflies (*Danaus plexippus*) on two invasive swallow-wort species. Entomol. Exp.
502 Appl. 108: 205-209
503

504 Economopoulos AP, Al-Taweel AA, Bruzzone ND (1990) Larval diet with a starter phase for
505 mass-rearing *Ceratitis capitata*: substitution and refinement in the use of yeasts and
506 sugars. Entomol. Exp. Appl. 55: 239-246
507

508 Fernandes-Da-Silva PG, Zucoloto FS (1993) The influence of host nutritive value on the
509 performance and food selection in *Ceratitis capitata* (Diptera, Tephritidae). J. Insect
510 Physiol. 39: 883-887
511

512 Fitt GP (1981) The ecology of Northern Australian Dacinae I. Host phenology and
513 utilisation of *Opilia amentacea* Roxb. (Opiliaceae) by *Dacus (Bactrocera) opiliae*
514 Drew & Hardy, with notes on some other species. Aust. J. Zool. 29: 691-705
515

516 Fletcher BS (1989) Life history strategies of tephritid fruit flies. In Fruit flies their Biology,
517 Natural Enemies and Control (eds A.S. Robinson & G. Hooper), Vol. 3B, pp. 195-
518 208. Elsevier, Amsterdam.

519

520 Fontellas-Brandalha TML, Zucoloto FS (2004) Selection of oviposition sites by wild
521 *Anastrepha obliqua* (Macquart) (Diptera: Tephritidae) based on the nutritional
522 composition. Neotrop. Entomol. 33: 557-562

523

524 Graham GC (2006) Phylogenetics of the Australasian Dacinae. Unpublished PhD thesis, The
525 University of Queensland

526

527 Greany PD, Shaw PE, Davis PL, Hatton TT (1985) Senescence-related susceptibility of
528 march grape fruit to laboratory infestation by *Anastrepha suspensa* (Diptera:
529 Tephritidae). Fla. Entomol. 68: 144-150

530

531 Hancock DL, Hamacek EL, Lloyd AC, Elson-Harris MM (2000) The Distribution and Host
532 Plants of Fruit Flies (Diptera: Tephritidae) in Australia. DPI Publications, Brisbane.

533

534 Herrera CM (1982) Defense of ripe fruit from pests: its significance in relation to plant-
535 disperser interactions. The American Naturalist 120: 218-241

536

537 Hodge JE, Hofreiter BT (1962) Determination of reducing sugars and carbohydrates. In:
538 Whislter RL, Wolfron ML (eds) Method in carbohydrate chemistry vol I. Academic
539 Press, New York, pp 380-394

540

541 Hulme AC (1971) The mango. In: Hulme AC (ed) The biochemistry of fruits and their
542 products vol II. Academic Press, London, pp 233-254
543

544 Jang EB, Light DM (1991) Behavioral responses of female Oriental fruit flies to the odor of
545 papayas at three ripeness stages in a laboratory flight tunnel (Diptera: Tephritidae). J.
546 Insect Behav. 4: 751-762
547

548 Joachim-Bravo IS, Zucoloto FS (1998) Performance and feeding behavior of
549 *Ceratitis capitata*: comparison of a wild population and a laboratory population.
550 Entomol. Exp. Appl. 87: 67-72
551

552 Joachim-Bravo IS, Fernandes OA, Bortoli SA de, Zucoloto FS (2001) Oviposition behavior
553 of *Ceratitis capitata* Wiedemann (Diptera: Tephritidae): Association between
554 oviposition preference and larval performance in individual females. Neotrop.
555 Entomol. 30: 559-564
556

557 Joel DM (1978) The secretory ducts of mango fruits: a defense system effective against the
558 Mediterranean fruit fly. Isr. J. Bot. 27: 44-45
559

560 Kaspi R, Parrella MP (2003) The feasibility of using the sterile insect technique against
561 *Liriomyza trifolii* (Diptera: Agromyzidae) infesting greenhouse chrysanthemum. Ann.
562 Appl. Biol. 143: 25-34
563

564 Kaspi R, Mossinson S, Drezner T, Kamensky B, Yuval B (2002) Effects of larval diet on

565 development rates and reproductive maturation of male and female Mediterranean
566 fruit flies. *Physiol. Entomol.* 27: 29-38
567

568 Kaspi R, Taylor PW, Yuval B (2000) Diet and size influence sexual advertisement and
569 copulatory success of males in Mediterranean fruit fly leks. *Ecol. Entomol.* 25: 279-
570 284
571

572 Keil H, Wasserman D, Dawson CR (1946) Mango dermatitis and its relationship to poison-
573 ivy hypersensitivity. *Ann. Allergy* 4: 268-281.
574

575 Knio KM, Goeden RD, Headrick DH (2007a) Genetic differentiation between the sibling and
576 sympatric flower-head infesting tephritids: The polyphage, *Trupanea nigricornis*
577 (Coquillett), and the narrowly oligophagous, *T-bisetosa* (Coquillett) (Diptera :
578 Tephritidae). *Proc. Entomol. Soc. Washington* 109: 295-308
579

580 Knio KM, White IM, Al-Zein MS (2007b) Host-race formation in *Chaetostomella cylindrica*
581 (Diptera : Tephritidae): Morphological and morphometric evidence. *J. Nat. Hist.* 41:
582 1697-1715
583

584 Krainacker DA, Carey JR, Vargas RI (1987) Effect of larval host on life history traits of the
585 Mediterranean fruit fly, *Ceratitis capitata*. *Oecologia* 73: 583-590
586

587 Linskens HF, Jackson JF (eds) (1995) Modern methods of plant analysis volume 18: Fruit
588 analysis. Springer, Berlin, Germany, pp 112-113
589

590 Liquido NJ, Chan HT Jr, McQuate GT (1995) Hawaiian tephritid fruit flies (Diptera):

591 integrity of the infestation-free quarantine procedure for 'Sharwil' avocado. J. Econ.
592 Entomol. 88: 85-96.

593

594 Macheix J-J, Fleuriet A, Billot J (eds) (1990) Fruit Phenolics. CRC Press, Inc., Boca Raton,
595 USA, pp 152-153.

596

597 Marsteller S, Adams DC, Collyer ML, Condon M (2009) Six cryptic species on a single
598 species of host plant: morphometric evidence for possible reproductive character
599 displacement. Ecol. Entomol. 34: 66-73

600

601 Medicott AP, Thompson AK (1985) Analysis of sugars and organic acids in ripening mango
602 fruits (*Mangifera indica* L. var Keitt) by high performance liquid chromatography. J.
603 Sci. Food Agric. 36: 561-566.

604

605 Messina FJ, Alston DG, Jones VP (1991) Oviposition by the Western cherry fruit fly
606 (Diptera: Tephritidae) in relation to host development. J. Kans. Entomol. Soc. 64:
607 197-208

608

609 Messina FJ, Jones VP (1990) Relationship between fruit phenology and infestation by the
610 apple maggot (Diptera: Tephritidae) in Utah. Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am. 83: 742-752

611

612 Navrozidis EI, Tzanakakis ME (2005) Tomato fruits as an alternative host for a laboratory
613 strain of the olive fruit fly *Bactrocera oleae*. Phytoparasitica 33: 225-236

614

615 Papaj DR, Alonso-Pimentel H (1997) Why walnut flies superparasitize: time savings as a

616 possible explanation. *Oecologia* 109: 166-174

617

618 Papaj DR, Katsoyannos BI, Hendrichs J (1989) Use of fruit wounds in oviposition by

619 Mediterranean fruit flies. *Entomol. Exp. Appl.* 53: 203-209

620

621 Peck SL, McQuate GT (2004) Ecological aspects of *Bactrocera latifrons* (Diptera:

622 Tephritidae) on Maui, Hawaii: Movement and host preference. *Environ. Entomol.* 33:

623 1722-1731

624

625 Rattanapun W, Amornsak W, Clarke, AR (2009) *Bactrocera dorsalis* preference for and

626 performance on two mango varieties at three stages of ripeness. *Entomol. Exp. Appl.*

627 131: 243-253

628

629 Seo ST, Farias GJ, Harris EJ (1982) Oriental fruit fly: Ripening of fruit and its effect on

630 index of infestation of Hawaiian papayas. *J. Econ. Entomol.* 75: 173-178

631

632 Smith D, Paulsen GM, Raguse CA (1964) Extraction of total available carbohydrates from

633 grass and legume tissue. *Plant Physiol.* 39: 960-962

634

635 Smith CA, Al-Zein MS, Sayar NP, Knio KM (2009) Host races in *Chaetostomella cylindrica*

636 (Diptera: Tephritidae): genetic and behavioural evidence. *Bull. Entomol.*

637 *Res.* 99: 425-432

638

639 Stireman JO, Nason JD, Heard SB (2005) Host-associated genetic differentiation in
640 phytophagous insects: General phenomenon or isolated exceptions? Evidence from a
641 goldenrod-insect community. *Evolution* 59: 2573-2587
642

643 Thomas DB (2004) Hot peppers as a host for the Mexican fruit fly *Anastrepha ludens*
644 (Diptera: Tephritidae). *Fla. Entomol.* 87: 603-608
645

646 Van Nouhuys S, Singer MC, Nieminen M (2003) Spatial and temporal patterns of caterpillar
647 performance and the suitability of two plant species. *Ecol. Entomol.* 28: 193-202
648

649 Vargas RI, Walsh WA, Nishida T (1995) Colonization of newly planted coffee fields:
650 Dominance of Mediterranean fruit fly over Oriental fruit fly (Diptera: Tephritidae). *J.*
651 *Econ. Entomol.* 88: 620-627
652

653 Walter GH (2003) *Insect Pest Management and Ecological Research*. Cambridge University
654 Press, Cambridge
655

656 Wilson K (1988) Egg laying decisions by the bean weevil *Callosobruchus maculatus*. *Ecol.*
657 *Entomol.* 13: 107-118
658

659 Woods B, Lacey IB, Brockway CA, Johnstone CP (2005) Hosts of Mediterranean fruit fly
660 *Ceratitis capitata* (Wiedemann) (Diptera: Tephritidae) from Broome and the Broome
661 Peninsula, Western Australia. *Aust. J. Entomol.* 44: 437-441
662

663 Yuval B, Kaspi R, Shloush S, Warburg MS (1998) Nutritional reserves regulate male

664 participation in Mediterranean fruit fly leks. Ecol. Entomol. 23: 211-215

665

666 Zucoloto FS (1987) Feeding habits of *Ceratitis capitata* (Diptera: Tephritidae): Can larvae

667 recognize a nutritionally effective diets? J. Insect Physiol. 33: 349-353

668

669 Zucoloto FS (1991) Effects of flavour and nutritional value on diet selection by *Ceratitis*

670 *capitata* larvae (Diptera: Tephritidae). J. Insect Physiol. 37: 21-25

671

672

673

674 **Figure legends**

675 **Figure 1** The mean (\pm SE) number of attempted ovipositions by gravid female *Bactrocera*
676 *dorsalis* into three fruit portions of mango variety Namdorkmai in no-choice and choice
677 trials. The data presented for each trial are pooled from observations made independently on
678 two different ripening stages (n = 40). The *Post-hoc* significance indicators are based on the
679 unpooled data in a 2-way ANOVA.

680

681 **Figure 2** The mean (\pm SE) number of *Bactrocera dorsalis* larvae in different fruit portions of
682 mango variety Namdorkmai, six days after 20 egg cohorts were inoculated into either the top
683 or bottom of mango fruit. (A) Ripe mango with eggs placed at the top of fruit; (B) Ripe
684 mango with eggs placed at the bottom of fruit; (C) Fully-ripe mango with eggs placed at the
685 top of fruit; (D) Fully-ripe mango with eggs placed at the bottom of fruit. Numbering of the
686 four fruit portions begins at the fruit end where eggs were inserted. Portion numbers 1-3
687 equally occupy one-half of a piece of fruit, portion four is the second half. n = 10, 20 egg
688 replicates per treatment.

689

690

691

692

693

694

695

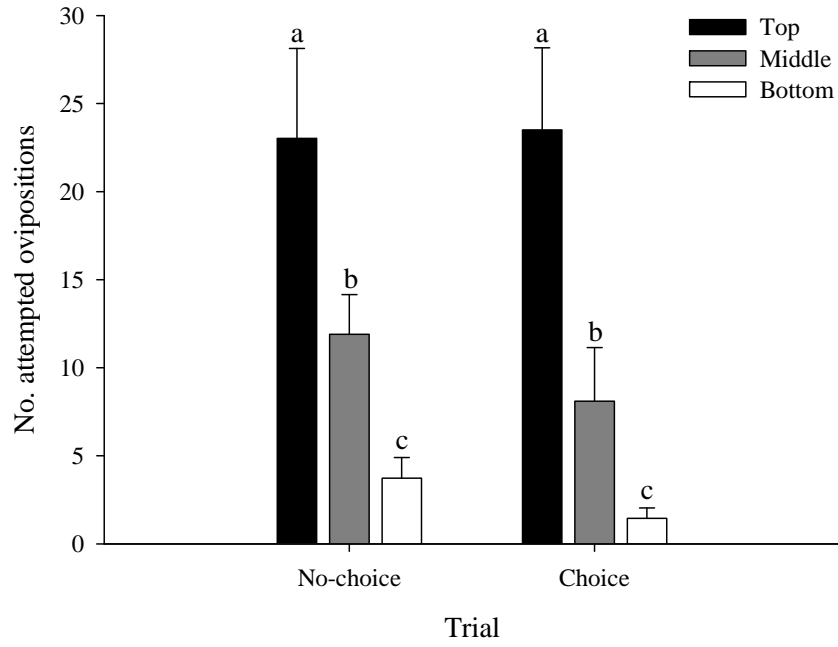
696

697

698

699

700



701 **Figure 1**

702

703

704

705

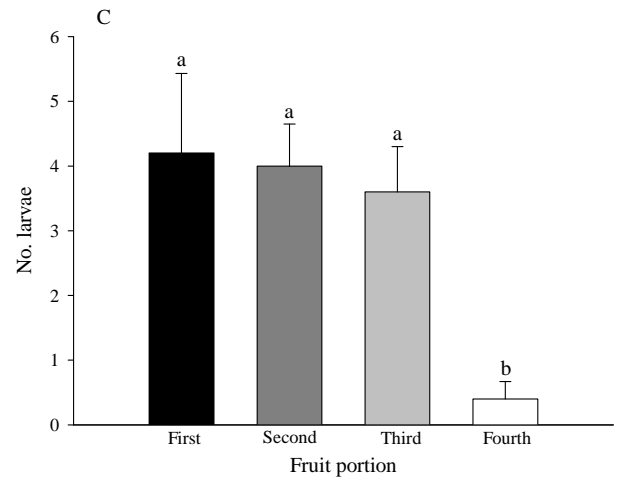
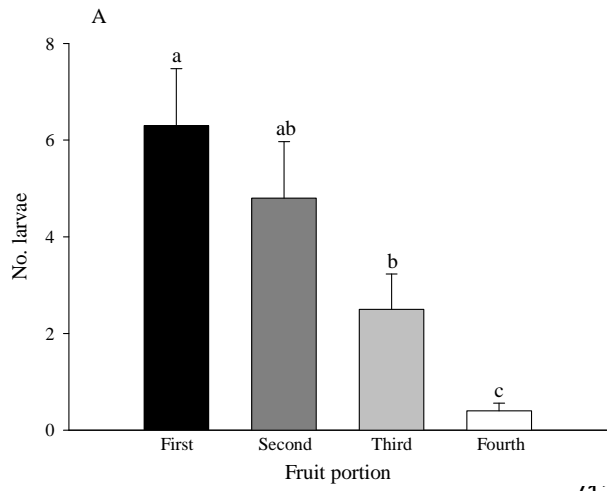
706

707

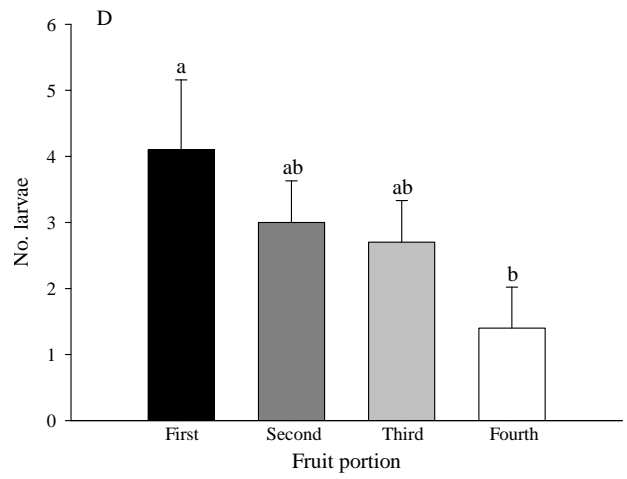
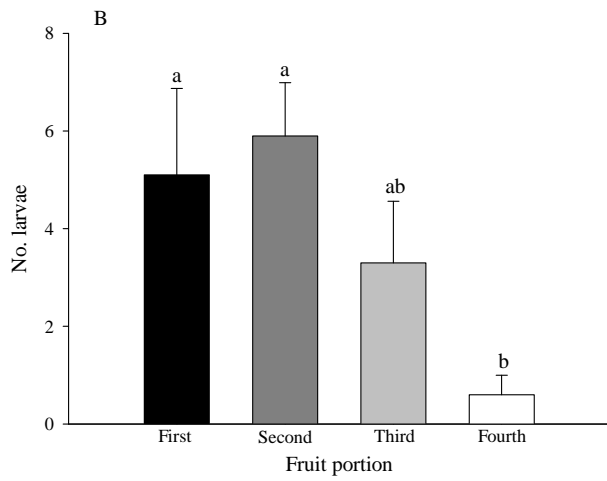
708

709

710



/12



714 **Figure 2**

715

716

717

718

719

720

721 **Table 1** The fruit properties of mango variety Namdorkmai at two ripening stages. [n =
 722 number of replicates; Values (mean \pm SE) in the same column of each mango ripening stage
 723 followed by a different letter are statistically different based on Tukey-test for TSS and
 724 firmness and Paired-samples t-test for TA and TNC at P < 0.05. Significance is based on
 725 transformed data using log (x + 1), non-transformed data are presented.]

726

	TSS ($^{\circ}$ Brix)	Firmness (kg/cm ²)	TA (%)	TNC (mg D- glucose/g dry weight)
Ripe				
top	15.31 \pm 0.31a	0.58 \pm 0.03c	0.80 \pm 0.16a	125.64 \pm 11.82a
middle	15.05 \pm 0.31a	0.95 \pm 0.03a	-	-
bottom	14.85 \pm 0.30a	0.79 \pm 0.04b	0.99 \pm 0.17a	112.54 \pm 10.85b
n	15	13	6	6
Fully-ripe				
top	19.86 \pm 0.96a	0.22 \pm 0.01a	0.14 \pm 0.03a	127.46 \pm 3.16a
middle	18.34 \pm 0.92a	0.22 \pm 0.01a	-	-
bottom	17.73 \pm 0.87a	0.22 \pm 0.01a	0.15 \pm 0.02a	128.00 \pm 3.88a
n	15	13	6	6

727

728

Table 2 The performance of *Bactrocera dorsalis* larvae developed in different fruit portions of two ripening stages of mango variety Namdorkmai. [n = number of replicates. Each replicate was initiated as a cohort of 20 eggs per fruit stage. Values (mean ± SE) in the same column of each mango ripening stages not followed by the same letter are significantly different based on Independent-samples t-test at P < 0.05. Significance is based on transformed data using log (x + 1), non-transformed data are presented.]

Mango ripening stages / fruit portion	Larval period (days)	Pupal recovery (%)	Pupal weight (g)	Pupal period (days)	Adult emergence (%)	Wing length (mm)	
						male	female
ripe							
top (n = 10)	11.64 ± 0.33a	56.50 ± 6.67a	0.158 ± 0.017a	10.13 ± 0.16a	73.57 ± 4.48a	6.04 ± 0.06a	6.19 ± 0.03a
bottom (n = 10)	11.70 ± 0.47a	45.50 ± 12.68a	0.129 ± 0.035a	9.88 ± 0.13a	35.13 ± 11.10b	6.06 ± 0.03a	6.24 ± 0.04a
fully-ripe							
top (n = 10)	12.80 ± 0.55a	52.00 ± 5.97a	0.138 ± 0.018a	10.43 ± 0.11a	69.10 ± 7.04a	6.08 ± 0.04a	6.27 ± 0.03a
bottom (n = 10)	11.83 ± 0.46a	53.00 ± 4.36a	0.140 ± 0.011a	10.41 ± 0.17a	61.26 ± 6.18a	6.13 ± 0.03a	6.19 ± 0.03a